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Letter from the Editor

Peggy M. Price

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Dear Readers,

The Society of Mississippi Archivists suffered a tremendous loss when long-time *Primary Source* editor and SMA friend and champion Irmi Wolfe passed away in May of 2005. Irmi was hard at work on this particular issue (Winter 2004), with a theme of maps, and fretting about not having "The Journal" ready for press, even as she faced serious illness and severe treatments. What you will find assembled here are the articles Irmi solicited and acquired for the maps issue. My sincere thanks to Irmi's husband, Dr. James Wolfe, and especially their daughter, Christine Wolfe, for such diligent and thorough efforts to gather computer files, copy disks, search email subject lines, collect pertinent papers and provide all of the information necessary to get the issue out. Thanks also to Diane Ross for assisting with technical tasks and for her continued support.

As most of you know, the *Primary Source* was a significant and enjoyable aspect of Irmi's career. After retiring from The University of Southern Mississippi Libraries, Irmi remained committed to SMA and to creating a quality journal for our organization. Always charming in her eager solicitation and kind with her deadlines, Irmi hoped to expand the role and reach of the articles to cover the cultural heritage professions at large, and to connect with a more general audience. And she wanted the *Primary Source* to last.

SMA is committed to the *Primary Source*. We are taking steps to ensure that the journal continues beyond Irmi's superb editorship and grows with our profession. An editorial staff was created at the Southern Archives Conference in April and will begin work on Volume 27 soon. Other changes may arise as the journal incorporates the sensibilities, insights, and expertise of rotating editors, but the *Primary Source* will continue to reflect the standards, vision and intentions of Irmi Wolfe.

Thank you for your patience. Please do not hesitate to send your suggestions and comments to me at Peggy.Price@usm.edu.

Enjoy.

Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps: History, Use, Availabilty

Lynne Mueller
Mississippi State University

Sanborn fire insurance maps are an excellent resource for anyone researching specific American communities, buildings, or industries from the mid-nineteenth to the mid-twentieth centuries. High production standards insure uniform information over time. To extract the most information, the user needs to understand the original purpose of the maps and how to interpret the visual elements. In addition, the researcher needs access to the right maps.

History of Fire Insurance Maps

The American fire insurance industry dates to the mid-eighteenth century. For the first eighty years, small privately-owned firms or partnerships were in the majority. A disastrous New York City fire in 1835 wiped out many of the smaller companies. This gave advantage to well-capitalized stock companies better able to afford high losses, especially if they could spread risks over wider geographical areas. The basic problem in covering a broad area was risk assessment at a distance, but changes in map publication promised a solution. Lithography, invented just before 1800, was cheaper than engraving. It could not, however, provide the accuracy needed for map-making because the artist had to draw the pattern in reverse on the stone. A new method appeared in 1847 for producing correctly-oriented drawings and transferring them in reverse to the stone, thus improving accuracy.[i]

In 1850, George T. Hope, secretary of the Jefferson Insurance Company of New York, decided that large-scale maps would be useful in calculating fire risks. He gathered a committee to direct the project and to formulate standards and symbols. Then, he hired William Perris, an English engineer, to survey and produce the map according to the committee's standards. The scale was 50 feet to an inch, and colors represented construction materials for each building. This Hope-Perris map of 1852 may be the first large-scale map made in America specifically for insurance underwriting. Perris published several revisions down to 1859; afterward, his son and son-in-law took over the revisions and added a map for Newark, New Jersey, as the Perris and Browne Company.[ii]

Other insurance companies followed Hope's example. Around 1855, Aetna Fire Insurance Company began hiring surveyors to map cities in which it operated. The Civil War slowed the process for a time, but the war's aftermath stimulated business. In 1866, Aetna hired a Massachusetts surveyor named D. A. Sanborn, to map several towns in Tennessee. These unpublished maps never appeared outside Aetna's offices.[iii]

Daniel Alfred Sanborn (1827-1883) already had a project in hand when Aetna hired him. He produced his *Insurance Map of Boston*, volume 1, in 1867 with the imprint of "D. A. Sanborn, C. E., 117 Broadway, New York." Later that same year, he established the D. A. Sanborn National Insurance Diagram Bureau in New York. He obviously saw the advantages of creating fire insurance maps independently and selling them to any companies wanting to buy. Sanborn's company dominated fire map production well into the twentieth century. In 1899, Sanborn bought out Perris and Browne to become Sanborn Perris Map Company. This allowed the company to claim its foundation as 1852 rather than 1867, but in 1902, the name shortened to Sanborn Map Company.[iv]

Over the years, Sanborn made maps for more than 12,000 cities and towns in the United States, Canada, and Mexico. The standards in their *Surveyor's Manual for the Exclusive Use and Guidance of Employees* were exacting. Map sheets were 21" X 25" and scaled at 50 feet to an inch. Since the company typically received fewer than 20 orders for any given sheet, they lithographed maps in black and white and then hand-colored them with wax-paper stencils and watercolors. A map consisted of one or more sheets, depending on the area covered, and Sanborn delivered them loose or in post-binders. Some large cities might fill many binders. By the twentieth century, sheets ran between $12 and $200, depending on the technical detail; commercial districts were more expensive than residential areas. The company first updated maps by issuing corrected sheets. To some extent, the frequency of reissues is a measure of a town's economic development. As costs rose, the company printed slips to paste on old maps and reissued whole sheets less often. Sanborn prided itself on its rapid provision of corrections. In 1934, the company delivered corrections Monday after a Saturday fire at the Chicago Stockyards.[v]

By World War I, Sanborn held a virtual monopoly in the fire insurance map-making business. A few small regional companies remained but none could offer Sanborn nationwide competition. Still, the fire map industry was past its prime. Due to complaints about the high cost of Sanborn maps, the National Board of Fire Underwriters formed a committee in 1914 to look into the possibility of creating and distributing its own maps. Ultimately, Sanborn added some of the committee's members to its own Board of Directors and surrendered to some supervision by them. When individuals and companies cut costs in the Great Depression by dropping insurance, insurance companies needed fewer updated maps. Sanborn countered sales losses by offering discounts for cash purchases, more paste-on services, and cloth sheet-mountings for longer life of the maps. World War II restrictions on

construction did not improve conditions for Sanborn. After the war, the company produced some smaller scale (200 feet to the inch) spiral-bound formats to reduce costs. Postwar insurance companies used new record-keeping methods and added their own engineering departments, further cutting into Sanborn's business. In 1967, Sanborn reduced its activities to maintaining maps for a limited number of communities (23 currently). The company still exists as a division of Environmental Data Resources (EDR) of Southport, Connecticut, which uses the historical maps in environmental and industrial surveys.[vi]

Using Sanborn Maps

At first, it might seem that maps created for the sole purpose of establishing insurance risk would be too specialized to apply to any other activity. In fact, the technical detail, the uniform standards of the maps' creation, and the geographical and chronological ranges available make the maps extremely reliable for many purposes. Historians and genealogists study them for clues to a community's or a family's past. Urban and land use planners look at community development for keys to future growth. Architectural historians and preservationists, restoration architects, construction engineers and demolition contractors find details for the restoration or safe removal of buildings. Environmentalists look for old hazards. Economists, demographers, and market analysts study the maps to understand local or industrial development. Property owners may be merely curious about a home or business or may want to restore it for its economic or tourism potential. Geographers and geologists find topographical and other changes in an area; one can track erosion of the Vicksburg bluffs or hurricane-induced changes on the Gulf Coast shoreline by using suitable Mississippi maps. Archaeologists survey potential dig sites; accuracy of measurements from known landmarks can be within a foot or two.[vii] Hobbyists find Sanborn maps invaluable. Bottle collectors identify potential sites to inspect. Collectors of fire-related memorabilia find both information about local firefighting facilities and locations of fire-damaged sites in the maps. The maps can also help identify sites and approximate dates of photographs.

The user should always remember that Sanborn maps are instruments of risk assessment and that any symbols, abbreviations, and colors used relate to that objective. By using these and other written information on the maps, the researcher can get a clear historical perspective on a structure, a neighborhood, or a community. In any case, the map user should take time and care in studying the map to extract all the information available. Because of the technicality of this section, the reader may find it more useful as an adjunct to actual inspection of a Sanborn map.[viii]

Sanborn maps range in length from one page to thousands, depending on a community's size. Bear in mind that most maps show only built-up areas where property owners were likely to insure holdings.[ix] Usually, the downtown or industrial areas, residential areas near downtown, and rapidly growing neighborhoods appear. Some writers insist that minority or poor neighborhoods are left off because the poor

rarely purchase insurance.[x] In Mississippi, at least, that is not true. Many building identifications include the race of the inhabitants, owners or patrons, helping demographers or others studying neighborhood changes. Excluded neighborhoods were sparsely settled or of uniform construction and risk (such as frame dwellings); often, the index map will specify the nature of unmapped areas, such as "4 fr. dw'gs" (four frame dwellings). A short map of two or three pages usually has a title on the first page; longer maps may have a full title page, including an index map with a listing of streets and "Specials" (named buildings, businesses and institutions). In either case, the first page of a map contains a notation of prevailing winds and population and a description of water sources and any available fire department or firefighting equipment. Oddly, the Greenville, Mississippi, maps of 1887 and 1890 show the prevailing wind as west, but in 1896 the wind changes to south and northeast. A local insurance agent signs each map verifying its authenticity and accuracy. Revision certificates include both the revision and original dates. The revision stamp is important since it suggests that uncorrected pages were still correct at the later date.

Index maps usually show a broader area than the actual sheets cover. Colored rectangles, with page number superimposed, group city blocks together by page. The map makers placed noncontiguous areas together on a sheet to save space; on the index map, those areas have the same color and page number. Underwriters needed to keep track of how much property they insured in a given area so that a company's liability is limited to a manageable amount.[xi] To help the underwriter with this task, the company assigned each city block a unique number or letter. Block numbers appeared on both the index map and the actual sheet. These numbers remained constant from date to date, but if renumbering did occur for any reason, the old number appears in parentheses below the new number on later maps. The best use of space determined page orientation, and a compass rose on each sheet or inset ensures alignment.

Sanborn maps display neighborhood factors that might spread fires or help in fighting them. Street names and numbers printed on the maps help locate property. Maps show water sources, whether wells, cisterns, or mains along with their capacities. Small filled circles mark hydrant locations. At intersections, open circles with footage marked inside denote height as evidence of pressure from gravity flow. These circles may be absent where a community is on level ground. "Wall out of plumb" and similar notations mark hazards for firefighters. Occasionally, one sees a building footprint "to be built" or "to be removed" to aid underwriters until the next revision. Rail lines reveal danger from sparks or a delay in the fire department reaching a fire. Rough or unusual terrain also shows up as a possible obstacle to firefighting. "No exposure" printed along a property means that fire is unlikely to spread from that direction due to terrain or lack of nearby hazards.

The first thing most people notice about Sanborn maps is color. Color coding dates back to the Hope-Perris map of 1852, and Sanborn followed the same scheme. Colors on structures reflect basic construction materials. Yellow always represents wood; red (pink) is brick or masonry; blue is stone or concrete; gray is metal; and green

is a special material not always identified. Brown indicates a fireproof building (often adobe). Two or more colors together show multiple materials in use. For instance, yellow with a red band around it represents a wooden house with a course of bricks part way up the first story; a red band between attached yellow structures shows a masonry firewall between the structures. A pink building with yellow along one side is usually brick with a wooden porch. Symbols identify structural features that contribute to relative flammability. Commonly, these included building height, height of a fire wall above the roof, type of roofing material, and outside windows, doors, and shutters on each level. These symbols appear in a block on the first page of a map set.

Building usage is a fire risk issue. For instance, a large "X" drawn across the footprint marks a stable. On the assumption that a stable contains hay and straw, it will probably burn more rapidly than a similarly constructed building nearby. Standardized abbreviations show usage. On the residential side, there are dwellings (D or Dw'g), boarding houses (Board'g), tenements (Tenem'ts) and apartments (Apts), with the occasional outer building marked as Servants [quarters]. When cars came along with their loads of flammable fuels, maps began abbreviating "A" or "Auto Ho" for garage or "A in B" for auto in basement. Outer buildings may or may not be identified. As a sidelight, buildings abbreviated "F.B." (female boarding) expose a red-light district; this is not a moral judgment but a useful sign that someone would always be home to raise the alarm in case of fire in the vicinity. Churches, on the other hand, are often vacant during the week.

Commercial buildings usually appear more detailed than dwellings. Businesses and factories may show either by company name or primary use. One can estimate the community's sophistication and the products and services available from this. Sometimes, distinctions between businesses may not be clear to the modern user. For instance, early Greenville, Mississippi maps show a block with a hand laundry (brick) at one corner, a Chinese laundry (wood) in the middle, and a steam laundry (also brick) on the other corner. The steam laundry's boiler was an addition marked in green for an unspecified "special material." The Chinese laundry in the middle might be the greatest fire risk of the three, depending on how they heated water. Descriptions of factories or commercial buildings noted flammable raw materials or products stored on site, interior lighting or skylights, fire precautions (such as fire buckets), and extra personnel (including night watchmen).

Sanborn maps have few readily discernible errors. One Southwestern researcher found the compass rose off from true north on several maps, possibly a magnetic anomaly or the presence of iron mine tracks below the towns. Comparing the 1902 and 1908 Albuquerque, New Mexico, maps, he found buildings rotated out of position or otherwise misplaced, perhaps from inaccurate town plats employed in the initial survey.[xii]

In spite of Sanborn's high standards, there may be misleading elements. Towns rename or renumber streets from time to time, making it difficult to find a particular

property. The maps may appear partially out of scale as well. In places where underwriters might need more room for notes, "widened" calls attention to the extra space left in a street; the company noted the actual street width on the map. Hardest to understand is why a building does not appear on a map when it is obviously of older construction than the date of the map. Several possible answers may exist. The building may be in an uncharted neighborhood. Street name or number changes may obscure the actual location. Someone may have moved the house from a different location, an occurrence less unusual than one would expect. Older construction techniques may continue past the introduction of new methods, and this may cause a researcher to believe the building is older than it really is.

Availability of Maps

Before using Sanborn maps, one must find maps suited to the need. Some authorities suggest that Sanborn made maps for every city with a population more than two thousand, which is probably true.[xiii] They mapped many smaller towns as well. On the Gulf Coast, Mississippi City had about one hundred residents when first mapped. Political or legal importance was not a trigger. Several counties in Mississippi have no representative communities mapped, not even county seats. Probably, the company created a map when an insurance agent requested one. In addition, very small communities might appear on maps of larger neighboring towns. The best source (outside Sanborn's own archives) for identifying maps is *Fire Insurance Maps in the Library of Congress: Plans of North American Cities and Towns Produced by the Sanborn Map Company: a Checklist*, produced by the Library of Congress's Geography and Map Division in 1981. R. Philip Hoehn's *Union List of Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps Held by Institutions in the United States and Canada* is more limited but still useful. Reproduction of images may extend availability, as well, but copyright law, conservation, and local policies come into play here.

The Library of Congress has the single largest collection of Sanborn maps outside the Sanborn Map Company itself, holding approximately 750,000 sheets, the majority deposited by from the company for copyright. These depository copies are in their initial uncorrected states or they are reissued corrected sheets. In 1967, the U. S. Bureau of the Census turned over to the Library of Congress 1,899 binders the Bureau had used in creating census tracts. These bound maps included paste-on corrections provided by Sanborn's updating service.[xiv] Within the strict limits of copyright, the Library of Congress provides copies. The least expensive are black and white photo-reproductions, which omit some detail of the original colored maps, but photographic and microfilm copies are also available. In 1997, the Library of Congress entered an agreement with EDR (Sanborn's parent company) to scan approximately one million maps held between them and to make them available on the Library of Congress web site.[xv] Unfortunately, this project fell through over contractual problems.[xvi]

Chadwyck-Healey launched a project in the early 1990s for making Sanborn maps widely available through microfilm. The company began filming maps from the

Library of Congress. Against advice, they chose to film in black and white, again losing detail from the colors. Microfilm is expensive but it provides some access outside the Library of Congress.[xvii]

Several recent projects provide limited access to Sanborn maps through the internet. ProQuest bought out Chadwyck-Healey and used the microfilm acquired through the purchase to begin mounting state sets on the web around 2001. These images, like the microfilm, are black and white, but ProQuest is considering rescanning originals for color in the future if it becomes economically feasible to do so. Right now, they offer access only by an annual subscription. Not all states are available: the actual enhancing and digitizing of the images evidently depend on having at least one subscription sold for a state before making the state available. The Ohio Library and Information Network and Ohio Public Library Network took a different approach. They arranged to mount images of Ohio communities (again from the Chadwyck-Healey microfilm) on the web, but access is limited to citizens of Ohio only.[xviii]

One stand-alone project sets precedence for further web access. The J. Willard Marriott Library at the University of Utah created digital images of its own collection of Utah maps. Due to copyright restrictions, they chose to limit the project to maps produced before 1922. The images are in color, and they have made these available to anyone accessing their web site.[xix]

Access to original maps is limited but various libraries around the country do have sets. In particular, between 1955 and 1978, the Library of Congress Geography and Map Division withdrew more than 288,000 duplicate sheets and offered them on exchange to other libraries. Mississippi State University acquired the available Mississippi maps.[xx] In later years, the library added more maps by direct purchases from the Sanborn Map Company and by gifts of other Library of Congress duplicates. Now, Mississippi State's collection includes maps for 116 communities across the states (the Library of Congress *Checklist* lists sets for 118 communities). The collection is open to the public. In 1971, the Sanborn Map Company gave permission to copy primarily because students were the main users. The main limitations to photocopying arise from the fragile nature of the maps and the need to preserve them for the future.

Notes

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i. Ristow, Walter W. "United States Fire Insurance and Underwriters Maps, 1852-1968." *Quarterly Journal of the Library of Congress*, 25 [no. 3] (July 1968): 198.

ii. Ristow, Walter W. "Introduction to *Fire Insurance Maps in the Library of Congress: a Checklist*" on "Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps." http://www.lib.berkeley.edu/EART/snb-intr.html; Ristow, "U.S. Fire Insurance Maps," 198.

iii. Ristow, "Introduction"; and Ristow, "U. S. Fire Insurance Maps," 198, 201.

iv. Ristow, "Introduction"; Ristow, "U. S. Fire Insurance Maps," 201-202; Kim Keister. "Charts of Change." *Historic Preservation*, 45, no. 3 (May/June 1993): 46; and Hoehn, R. Philip. *Union List of Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps Held by Institutions in the United States and Canada*. Vol. 1: *Alabama to Missouri*. Foreword by Walter W. Ristow. Occasional Paper No. 2. (Santa Cruz, Calif.): Western Association of Map Libraries, [1976], v.

v. Ristow, "Introduction"; Hoehn, vi; Nehls, Chris. "Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps, a Brief History." http://fisher.lib.virginia.edu/collections/maps/sanborn/web/about.html; and "Map Monopoly," *Fortune Magazine*, February 1937, 22, 42.

vi. Ristow, "Introduction"; and Hoehn, vi.

vii. Shkurkin, Vlad. "Fire Insurance Maps as Primary Historic Records." (paper presented to the Historical Society of New Mexico, Taos, New Mexico, 27 April 1984), http://www.utahice.com/sanborn/firemaps.htm.

viii. Utah maps are the most readily available set on the web and might be useful to see how elements mentioned in the section appear. The J. Willard Marriott Library provides free access at http://www.lib.utah.edu/digital/sanborn.

ix. "Maps and Atlas Collection: Sanborn Fire Insurance Company Maps." http://wisconsinhistory.org/libraryarchives/maps/sanborn.asp.

x. "How to Read Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps." http://fisher.lib.virginia.ed/collections/maps/sanborn/web/details.html.

xi. "The $124,000,000 NA Companies." *Fortune Magazine*, February 1937, 166.

xii. Shkurkin, "Fire Insurance Maps."

xiii. "Description and History of Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps." http://www.indiana.edu/~libgm/readhist.html.

xiv. Ristow, "Introduction."

xv. News releases, 6 June 1997, 9 June 1997, and 5 December 1997. "News from the Library of Congress." http://www.loc.gov/today/pr/1997/~.html.

xvi. Arlitsch, Kenning. "Digitizing Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps™ for a Full Color, Publicly Accessible Collection." *D-Lib Magazine*, 8, no. 7/8 (July/August 2002). http://www.dlib.org/dllib/july02/arlitsch/07arlitsch.html.

xvii. Ibid.

xviii. Arlitsch, "Digitizing"; and "About Digital Sanborn Maps." http://sanborn.umi.com.html.

xix. Arlitsch, "Digitizing."

xx. Ristow. "Introduction," preface.

Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps of Mississippi: A List

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The following is a list of Sanborn maps for Mississippi located in the collections of the Library of Congress and Mississippi State University (boldface). Most are original maps unless marked "c" (corrected); corrected maps include both original and revised dates. Corrected maps may be photocopies or originals with paste-on corrections. Included towns may be on selected dates only.

Aberdeen - 1885, 1890, 1894, 1899, 1905, 1910, 1918, 1925, c1925/1938, **1925/1959**
Ackerman - 1898, 1904, 1909, 1925, c 1925/1933
Amory - 1902, **1906, 1911, 1918, 1925, 1929,** c1929/1939, **1929/1961**
Baldwyn - 1925
Batesville - 1925, 1932, c 1932/1945
Bay St. Louis [incl. Waveland] - 1893, 1898, 1904, 1909, 1917, 1924, 1930, c 1930/1944
Bay Springs (Jasper county) - 1943
Belzoni - 1905, 1911, 1915, 1927, c 1927/1944
Benoit - 1915, 1925
Biloxi [incl. d'Iberville and North Biloxi]- 1893, 1898, 1904, 1909, 1914, 1925, c 1925/1948, **c 1925/1952 (MSU copy on microfilm), c 1925/1962**
Bolton - 1900, **1905,** 1910, **1925**
Booneville - 1904, **1910,** 1924, c. 1924/1943
Brookhaven [incl. Bogue Chitto] - 1886, 1892, 1896, 1900, 1905, 1910, 1918, 1925, c. 1925/1950
Brooksville - 1925, c 1925/1938, **c 1925/1939**
Byhalia - 1915, 1932
Canton - 1887, 1892, 1900, **1905, 1911, 1916, 1925,** c 1925/1950, **c 1925/1963**
Carrollton [incl. North Carrollton] - 1895, 1900, 1905, 1911, 1925
Centreville - 1886, 1896, 1900, 1904, 1909, 1925, c. 1925/1933
Charleston - 1915, 1925, c 1925/1944, **c 1925/1960**
Clarksdale [incl. Lyon] - 1892, 1897, 1900, **1905, 1909, 1914, 1918, 1923, 1929,** c 1929/1948, **c 1929/1966**
Cleveland - 1905, 1909, 1913, 1925, 1933, c 1933/1941, **c 1933/1960**
Coffeeville - 1893, **1895, 1900, 1905, 1910, 1925,** c 1925/1940
Coldwater - 1886, 1892, 1905, 1910, 1917, 1925
Collins - 1925
Columbia - 1915, 1925, 1931, c 1931/1946
Columbus - 1885, 1890, 1895, 1900, 1905, 1910, 1926, c 1926/1948, **c 1926/1966**
Como - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1911, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1939
Corinth [incl. West Corinth] - 1885, 1889, 1894, 1899, 1904, 1909, 1913, 1924, c 1924/1949, **c 1924/1963**
Crystal Springs - 1889, 1893, 1898, 1904, 1909, 1915, 1925, 1930, c 1930/1939
Drew - 1925, c 1925/1944
Durant - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1914, 1925, c 1925/1942

Edwards - 1886, 1893, 1898, 1904, 1909, 1925, c 1925/1938
Ellisville - 1890, 1895, 1898, 1904, 1909, 1915, 1926, c 1926/1948
Enterprize [incl. New Enterprize] - 1885, 1890, 1895, 1900, 1906, 1912, 1926
Eupora - 1905, 1910, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1938
Fayette, 1904, 1908, 1925, c 1925/1936
Forest - 1928, c 1928/1949
Friars Point - 1886, 1893, 1897, 1904, 1909, 1918, 1924, c 1924/1936
Fulton - 1929
Gloster [City] - 1893, 1899, 1904, 1909, 1925, c 1925/1936
Greenville - 1887, 1890, 1896, 1900, 1905, 1911, 1915, 1925, 1931, c 1931/1950, c 1932/1968
Greenwood - 1892, 1897, 1899, 1905, 1911, 1918, 1926, c 1926/1949, c 1926/1964
Grenada [incl. Tie Plant] - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1913, 1925, c 1925/1945, c 1925/1959
Gulfport - 1904, 1907, 1912, 1921, 1929, c 1929/1950
Hattiesburg - 1890, 1895, 1898, 1903, 1906, 1910, 1915, 1925, 1931, c 1931/1949
Hazlehurst - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1913, 1925, c 1925/1943
Hernando - 1886, 1892, 1903, 1909, 1915, 1925, 1936
Hollandale - 1909, 1926, c 1926/1945
Holly Springs - 1887, 1892, 1897, 1907, 1915, 1925, c 1925/1949
Houston - 1925, c 1925/1943, c 1925/1944
Indianola - 1900, 1905, 1909, 1915, 1925, 1931, c 1931/1942
Itta Bena - 1905, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1945
Iuka - 1925
Jackson [incl. Fondren] - 1885, 1890, 1895, 1900, 1904, 1909, 1914, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1946
[reprinted 1948 as small spiral bound atlas], c. 1925/1962, c 1925/1967-68
Kosciusko - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1914, 1925, 1932, c 1932/1949, c 1932/1960
Lambert - 1925, c. 1925/1940
Laurel - 1900, 1902, 1907, 1910, 1915, 1926, c. 1926/1948, c 1926/1966
Leland - 1898, 1904, 1909, 1915, 1925, c 1925/1940
Lexington - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1914, 1925, c 1925/1941, c 1925/1951
Long Beach - 1924, 1930
Louisville - 1925, c 1925/1942
Lumberton - 1906, 1912, 1925, c 1925/1944
McComb [City] - 1886, 1893, 1898, 1904, 1907, 1913, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1949
McHenry - 1925
Macon - 1885, 1890, 1894, 1899, 1904, 1909, 1925, c 1925/1942
Magnolia - 1898, 1904, 1909, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1936
Marks - 1925, c 1925/1936
Mendenhall - 1940
Meridian - 1885, 1889, 1893, 1898, 1902, 1906, 1912, c 1912/1950, c 1925/1967
Mississippi City [incl. Handsboro] - 1900, 1904, 1909, 1924, 1929, c 1929/1942
Moorhead - 1907, 1911, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1936
Moss Point - 1893, 1898, 1904, 1909, 1915, 1925, c. 1925/1944
Natchez - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1901, 1904, 1910, 1925, c 1925/1950, c 1925/1966
New Albany - 1904, 1907, 1913, 1925, c 1925/1948, c 1925/1962
Newton, 1905, 1910, 1916, 1927, c 1927/1939
Ocean Springs - 1893, 1898, 1904, 1909, 1915, 1925, c 1925/1944
Okolona - 1889, 1894, 1899, 1905, 1910, 1925, c 1925/1945
Oxford - 1885, 1890, 1895, 1900, 1905, 1910, 1916, 1925, c 1925/1948, c 1925/1949
Pascagoula, 1904, 1918, 1924, c 1924/1950
Pass Christian [incl. Henderson Point] - 1893, 18908, 1904, 1909, 1918, 1924, 1930, c. 1930/1948
Philadelphia [incl. Deemer] - 1926, 1932, c. 1932/1942
Picayune - 1929, 1951
Pickens - 1895, 1900, 1905, 1911, 1925, c 1925/1940
Pontotoc - 1895, 1898, 1905, 1910, 1916, 1925, 1929, c 1929/1943, c 1929/1953

Poplarville - 1915, 1925, c 1925/1944
Port Gibson - 1889, 1896, 1900, 1905, 1910, 1925, 1930, c. 1930/1948
Quitman - 1930, 1951
Raymond - 1925
Richton - 1925
Ripley - 1925, c. 1925/1943
Rolling Fork - 1915, 1916, 1926, 1936
Rosedale - 1904, 1909, 1918, 1924, 1925, c 1924/1945, c 1925/1947
Ruleville - 1925, c 1925/1933
Sardis - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1915, 1925, 1940
Scranton - 1893, 1898, 1909
Senatobia - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1915, 1925, c 1925/1936
Shaw - 1911, 1925, 1933, c 1933/1945
Shelby - 1911, 1919, 1925, c 1925/1936
Shubuta - 1885, 1890, 1895, 1900, 1906, 1912, 1926
Starkville - 1885, 1890, 1895, 1900, 1905, 1910, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1948, c 1925/1959
Summit - 1886, 1892, 1896, 1902, 1907, 1913, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1936, c 1925/1950
Sumner - 1925, c. 1925/1938
Sumrall - 1925
Sunflower - 1925
Tchula - 1925, c 1925/1933
Tunica - 1918, 1924, c 1925/1945, c 1925/1946
Tupelo [incl. East Tupelo] - 1889, 1894, 1899, 1903, 1909, 1914, 1919, 1924, 1929, c 1929/1949, c 1929/1964
Tutwiler - 1925, c 1925/1938
Tylertown - 1925, 1931, c 1931/1941
Union - 1926, c 1926/1933
Vaiden - 1889, 1894, 1899, 1905, 1910, 1925
Vicksburg [incl. Walters/Waltersville] - 1886, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1907, 1913, 1925, c 1925/1948, c 1925/1969
Water Valley - 1885, 1890, 1893, 1898, 1903, 1910, 1925, 1932, c 1932/1940
Webb - 1925
Wesson - 1886, 1889, 1895, 1900, 1905, 1910, 1925, c 1925/1939
West Point - 1885, 1890, 1894, 1898, 1905, 1910, 1918, 1925, c 1925/1941, c 1925/1959
Wiggins - 1925
Winona - 1886, 1889, 1895, 1900, 1905, 1911, 1925, 1932, c 1932/1940
Woodville - 1886, 1893, 1899, 1904, 1909, 1925, c 1925/1937
Yazoo City - 1886, 1889, 1895, 1900, 1905, 1911, 1927, c 1927/1950, c 1927/1962

Maps as Evidence in Maritime Boundary Disputes: Louisiana v. Mississippi

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Washington Map Society
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The question of whether or not maps possess probative value in the resolution of boundary disputes reflects a sharp cleavage of opinion in the international law community.[i] In its memorial submitted to the International Court of Justice in the Gulf of Maine Case (1984), the United States included only two eighteenth-century maps in support of prescriptive rights.[ii] By comparison, the Canadian memorial encompassed a detailed history of the hydrographic mapping of the disputed area as well as a description of French, Dutch and British charts, starting from 1610 onwards.[iii] Based on the assumption that the Court would decide the case on points of law rather than historical evidence, the United States memorial focused on the rules encompassed in international conventions. The Canadian position adhered to the more traditional approach in the form of stressing prescriptive rights supported by such historical evidence as maps and charts. On balance, the Court favored the Canadian claim.[iv]

The Pearl River Boundary Dispute

Below the thirty-first parallel the Pearl River is the boundary between Louisiana and Mississippi. Its estuary empties into the Mississippi Sound – an arm of the sea separating the coast of Mississippi on the north from the Louisiana shore on the south. At the turn of the century oystering was a thriving industry, and the absence of a lateral seaward boundary led to ongoing friction between the oystermen of Louisiana and Mississippi. In addition to the problem of licensing fishing boats, Mississippi law permitted dredging oyster beds, whereas Louisiana authorities imposed fines on those caught using dredges. By 1902, an armed Louisiana patrol vessel was on duty in the contested waters. To resolve the dispute the attorneys-general of the two states agreed to a "friendly suit" in the form of an original case in equity before the U.S. Supreme Court, and Louisiana filed its motion as the plaintiff in October, 1902.

Two topics of public international law dominated the proceedings. The first was the applicability of the rule of the Thalweg to the delimination of a maritime

boundary between two states. The second was a determination of whether or not the doctrine of acquisitive prescription would serve to confirm the plaintiff's claim. On both subjects the probative value of maps and charts was the key issue. For specialists in cartography, Louisiana v. Mississippi became the testing ground for the use of maps as evidence.

Cartographic evidence focused on the following five questions:

a. Did mapmakers of the 18th and 19th centuries depict the Mississippi Sound as a body of inland water separate from the Gulf of Mexico?
b. If the Mississippi Sound is an inland waterway, is the Thalweg shown on early maps or charts?
c. At the time of Mississippi's statehood (1817) was the St. Bernard Peninsula solid land or, as it is today, a series of islands and hummocks?
d. Do official maps support the claims of either Louisiana or Mississippi?
e. Do commercial maps reflect a public perception that Grand Island belongs to Louisiana or to Mississippi?

To answer these questions each side compiled and submitted atlases.[v] John Dymond, Jr., an attorney for the State of Louisiana, had contacted P. Lee Phillips, the Chief of the Maps and Charts Division of the Library of Congress, for the purpose of assembling maps for the Louisiana Atlas. Photographic and colored copies were then made available as evidence to be presented in court. Dymond also drew upon the extensive personal collection of William Beer, the Librarian of Tulane University and a lifelong collector of historical maps. All in all, the Louisiana Atlas included 63 numbered exhibits and two addenda. By comparison, the Mississippi Atlas encompassed only seven exhibits, and its organization did not reflect the care so apparent in the Louisiana presentation. Not surprisingly, counsel for Mississippi did not rely heavily on cartographic evidence in the trial.

The trial was divided into two parts. The first was a series of extended hearings held before Commissioners appointed by the Supreme Court for Louisiana and Mississippi. The hearings commenced in New Orleans on April 5 and concluded in Jackson on September 22, 1904. Maps and charts were the object of extensive discussion during this phase. The case was argued before the Supreme Court on October 10 through 12, 1905, and the decision was announced on March 5 the following year. Chief Justice Melville Fuller wrote the opinion for the Court, and his analysis included an evaluation of the cartographic evidence presented by the two parties to the dispute.

During the hearings the State of Louisiana called not only the librarian Beer but also officials of state government whose knowledge of the area was unrivaled. After delivering a short discourse on such famous mapmakers as

Willem Janszoon Blaue (1571-1638), Jacques Nicholas Bellin (1703-1772), and Emanual Bowen (1720-1767), Beer was cross-examined extensively as to the provenance of his map collection. The examination focused on two issues: the authenticity of the maps and their scientific accuracy. As to the first point Beer could only insist that he had purchased the maps from reliable dealers. The issue of accuracy is insoluble. Because of the forces of accretion and erosion, the land forms in question are constantly in transition. An eighteenth-century map may well have been accurate for its day and therefore possess probative value, despite the fact that forces of nature have altered the topography. The cross-examination of Beer developed these points and contributed thereby to an understanding of the use of maps as evidence.

Cartographic Evidence

The customary rule in the use of cartographic evidence centers on the question of whether or not mapmakers have over time concurred as to the jurisdiction of a state over the contested territory. The emphasis is usually on quantity perception shared by a large number of cartographers. In this regard, both official and commercial maps are relevant, the idea is to establish a trend over time.

Maps enabled the litigants to answer the foregoing questions. First, early cartographers were unanimous in depicting the Mississippi Sound as a body of inland water apart from the Gulf of Mexico. Consequently the rule of the Thalweg would apply in the delimitation of the lateral seaward boundary between the two states. Mississippi's case rested on the assumption that the Sound was part of the high seas – an assertion which the Court rejected. Ironically, in 1983 Mississippi was to argue before the Court that the Sound was indeed inland and apart from the Gulf, while the Federal government took the position that the water between the mainland and the barrier islands should be classified as "high seas." With the passage of time, both Mississippi and the United States had reversed their positions.

The second question referred to early charts and the identification of the Thalweg. At the behest of the British Admiralty, the hydrographer Georg Gauld charted the Gulf coast in 1778, and his charts were subsequently regarded as authoritative until the survey begun by the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey in 1846. In his opinion Chief Justice Fuller ruled that the Gauld map showed the existence of a deep-water channel extending southwest from Cat Island into the open waters of the Gulf.[vi] Accordingly, even eighteenth-century mapmakers had charted the Thalweg, and Louisiana's argument was therefore historically correct.

The third question involved an interpretation of the Enabling Act which granted Mississippi statehood in 1817. Congress had defined the maritime zone of Mississippi as including all islands within eighteen miles of the mainland. If the St. Bernard "Peninsula" at the time of statehood was actually an archipelago,

then Mississippi's claim was legally defensible. To rebut this allegation, Louisiana presented maps showing the peninsula as solid land. Among these was a map published by Isaac Tirion in Amsterdam in 1769, which described the peninsula as a swampy extension of the mainland. Early maps tended to support this interpretation.

The fourth question concerning the position taken in official maps was ultimately to prove decisive. In 1868, the Legislature and the Governor of Mississippi authorized the publication of T.S. Hardee's "Official Map of Mississippi." The map assigned all of the territory southwest of the Cat Island Channel to Louisiana. A subsequent edition did the same, and the series of Mississippi maps published between 1879 and 1890 by the General Land Office of the Department of the Interior implicitly accepted the Hardee map as a precedent. Efforts by Monroe McClurg, Mississippi's Attorney General, to discredit the map proved unavailing. Chief Justice Fuller seized upon the point and concluded that Mississippi had abandoned its claim and could not now reassert it.[vii]

The fifth question analyzed the work of commercial mapmakers and their perception of Mississippi's boundaries. Such mapmakers and publishers as Mathew Carey (1760-1839), Henry Schenck Tanner (1786-1858), and Joseph Hutchins Colton (1880-1893) had all published state maps. Their attention had, however, not focused on the coastal zone. Moreover the interpretation of these maps often depended upon coloration which, as the trial attorneys pointed out, was not always uniform. Indeed enterprising booksellers would sometimes embellish the coloring of maps on display.

Two maps of historical importance deserve particular mention, and both were included in the Louisiana Atlas. The first was Barthelme Lafon's map of Louisiana and the Mississippi Territory (1806).[viii] The coloration showed both the Mississippi coast and the contested islands in yellow, thereby legitimating Mississippi's claim. During the pretrial hearings McClurg pressed this point only to encounter stiff opposition on the part of the witness Beer, who insisted that Lafon was not "necessarily correct."[ix] The second was John La Tourrette's map of Mississippi (1839,1850). In this instance, too, Mississippi's claim received support, for both Hancock County, Mississippi, and Grand Island were colored green[x]. The transcript of the hearing does not indicate that counsel for Mississippi picked up on this point.

Louisiana v. Mississippi set a standard for the use of maps as evidence in territorial disputes, as noted in both the hearings and the decision of the Court. Nevertheless, the case illustrates the need to prepare a coherent argument based on careful research. The mere presentation of maps without a detailed analysis of their provenance and accuracy may well be counterproductive. Indeed the use of a few maps of recognized importance may be prefereable to submitting a large number of ungraded items. To this extent, Louisiana v.

Mississippi demonstrates that quantity alone is not enough; quality is also central to the outcome of the issue.

Notes

[i] International legal precedents for the use of cartographic evidence include the following: Alaskan Boundary Tribunal, U.S. Senate doc. 162 (1904); Border Dispute: Honduras and Nicaragua (1906) in 11 Reports of International Arbitral Awards (1962) at 101; Honduran-Guatemalan Boundary Question, U.S. Department of State (1920); Opinion and Award of the Special Boundary Tribunal: Guatemala and Honduras (1920); Advisory Opinion regarding the Delimitation of the Polish-Czechoslovakian Frontier in Acts and Documents. Permanent Court of International Justice, series B, No. 8 (1923); Question of the Monastery of Saint-Naoum (Albanian Frontier) in Acts and Documents, Permanent Court of International Justice, series C, No.11 (1924);Re Labrador Boundary in 2 Dominion Law Reports (1927) at 401; The Island of Palmas: Netherlands and the United States (1928) in 2 Reports of International Arbitral Awards (1949) at 829; The Minquiers and Ecrehos Case: France and the United Kingdom in Reports, International Court of Justice (1953) at 47; Case Concerning Sovereignty over certain Frontier Land: Belgium and the Netherlands, in Reports, International Court of Justice (1959) at 209; Case Concerning the Temple of Preah Vihear: Cambodia and Thailand in Reports, International Court of Justice (1962) at 6; Rann of Kutch Arbitration: India and Pakistan in 7 International Legal Materials (1968) at 665; The Beagle Channel Arbitration: Argentina and Chile in Memorial of Chile (1973); and Demarcation of the International Boundary between Iraq and Kuwait, in 32 International Legal Materials (1993) at 1425.

[ii] Case Concerning the Delimitation of the Maritime Boundary in the Gulf of Maine Area: Memorial Submitted by the United States, International Court of Justice (1982) at 64.

[iii] Case Concerning the Delimitation of the Maritime Boundary in the Gulf of Maine Area: Annexes to the Counter-Memorial Submitted by Canada, vol. III: State Activities, International Court of Justice (1983) at 23.

[iv] International Court of Justice, Yearbook 1984-1985, at 159. Also see Sandra H. Shaw and Daniel J. Dzurek, "Charts in the Law of the Sea," in Rights to Oceanic Resources, ed. D.G. Dallmeyer and L. DeVorsey, Jr. (The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1989) at 15,23.

[v] U.S. Supreme Court, October Term 1904, No.11, Original, Atlas of Maps Offered by the State of Louisiana and Atlas of Maps Offered by the State of Mississippi, Cartographic Section, National Archives, RG 267.

[vi] 202 U.S. 1, 47.

[vii] Ibid., 57.

[viii] Barthelme Lafon, "Carte generale du Territoire d'Orleans comprenant aussi la Floride Occidentale et une Portion du Territoire du Mississippi" (New Orleans, 1806).

[ix] Louisiana v. Mississippi, No. 11, Original, U.S. Supreme Court in Records and Briefs, vol. 202 (1905) at 617.

[x] John La Tourrette, "An accurate Map or Delineation of the State of Mississippi with a large portion of Louisiana & Alabama; showing the communication by land and water between the

Cities of New Orleans and Mobile, form original surveys of the United States" (Mobile, 1839 and New York, 1850).

The MDAH Historical Map Collection On the Move: Preservation and Access

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The maps known as the MDAH Historical Map Collection came together in the 1970s as a "special collection" of largely published, monographic maps of the Southeast region and the state of Mississippi dating from the late sixteenth century through the late nineteenth century. Considered to be the most significant maps held by the department, many of these maps could be found in standard map bibliographies for America and the large group of Mississippi city and county maps by a variety of publishers and a collection of early twentieth century U.S.D.A. county soil maps for Mississippi. It is important to note that this broad collection of roughly 1500 maps, with publication dates through the late twentieth century, is only a portion of the MDAH map holdings. Notably, maps found in many state agency official record series, manuscript collections and the U.S.G.S. topographic map collection are managed separately and not included in the Historical Map Collection.

Preservation and access to the Historical Map Collection in the Charlotte Capers Archives and History Building also evolved from the 1970s, but came into sharp focus as serious planning for the new William F. Winter Archives and History Building was underway in the late 1990s. In 1998, custody of the collection was transferred from the paper Archives Section to the Published Information Section, which was responsible for the acquisition, cataloging, and management of other published collections such as books, serials, and vertical file material. At the time of the transfer, individual archival folders and MARC catalog records had been completed for about 40% of the maps. Primary bibliographic access was still considered by library patrons to be the map card catalog file arranged alphabetically by geographic name, even though an online public access catalog contained the MARC records that had been completed for the collection. An Informix database for the collection was also used by the staff as a reference resource. The collection was physically maintained in the closed stacks of the Capers Building, in over-filled standard horizontal five drawer steel map cabinets.

To prepare the collection for the move and relocation in the future William F. Winter Archives and History Building, its completion then projected for 2002,

the goal of then Archives and Library Division Director, H.T. Holmes (now MDAH Director) was staff completion of individual MARC catalog records and archival folders for all maps in the collection, and the reorganization of the collection. The reorganization of the collection, already underway, was based on five folder sizes and an in-house call number that incorporated both folder size and a cataloging accession number. The new number would replace at least three other groups of call numbers used in the past. These three projects went hand in hand and were viewed as providing a standard for preservation and access to the collection. Some details and results of the work follow.

It was clear that housing maps in individual archival folders would achieve the greatest overall preservation of the map collection. The majority of the maps were still residing in flimsy 10 pt. paper stock folders holding a dozen or more maps grouped together by one of several in-house call numbers. It was not a pretty sight. Retrieval of maps required a physical search, often by more than one staff person, and resulted in direct handling of many individual maps in the group folder in order to locate and then return the one requested. So many of these maps were rare or historically significant that logic was clearly on the side of individual folders.

Since the Historical Map Collection was being reorganized by folder size, it had been previously determined that five archival folder and/or board sizes were appropriate and would be standard for all maps in the collection. The five archival folder and board sizes are as follows:

Folder Size A	38 x 50 cm.	(15 x 20 in.)
Folder Size B	55 x 71 cm.	(22 x 28 in.)
Folder Size C	76 x 101 cm.	(30 x 40 in.)
Folder Size D	88 x 114 cm.	(35 x 45 in.)
Folder Size OS	101 x 150 cm.	(40 x 60 in.)

A survey of map and folder sizes had to be completed so that folders could be made in advance of the other work.

Following the general guidelines of the Northeast Document Conservation Center in "Storage Solutions for Oversized Paper Artifacts," for construction of folders with inside polyester covers, and more detailed department guidelines, folders were constructed to size from archival, acid-free, lignin-free, 20pt. (0.20") folder stock. Two folder sheets, cut to size, were held together on the left outer sides by acid-free, gummed linen tape. The archival board housings (OS and optional C and D sizes) were constructed from archival double-walled corrugated board, polyester sheets, and double coated film tape. The advantage gained by this type of archival housing is the dual benefit of the archival folder and polyester encapsulation. Every archivist knows that full encapsulation can speed the deterioration of acid-laden, untreated documents.

Handling and retrieval of maps was a very large threat to this very fragile single-sheet paper format. The maps in these folders had much greater support and protection and were less likely to be torn or otherwise damaged. The maps could be pulled and filed without being touched by retrievers and seen and used without being touched by library patrons. The advantage of mounting large and oversized maps on archival board under a polyester cover was especially evident. Handling and retrieval of oversized maps, kept in two stacks on top of groups of map cabinets in the Capers Building, was a nightmare that happened with each request. It was generally the case that many of these oversized maps would need to be moved, requiring at least two people, to get to the map requested. This meant another large surface was required but not always available for the maps that had to be shifted. The oversized maps that had been mounted on the previously described archival boards were supported and protected and not subject to the great physical stress of movement that oversized maps even in heavy-duty folders typically receive.

With staffing always in short supply for map work, the hundreds of folders required were constructed over a period of three to four years by a part-time conservator with exceptional skills and many years of conservation experience, and a new employee with several additional assignments unrelated to conservation. The conservator did additional conservation work as required on the maps, including paper mending, old tape and label removal, encapsulation for maps that had been de-acidified, and double-sided folder construction for many double-sided maps. Trained by the conservator, the new employee, with a natural aptitude for conservation work, made the majority of the maps folders. This natural aptitude, as well as physical energy and stamina, seem important considerations in assigning inexperienced and previously untrained staff to this demanding work. The talent or absence of talent for this work becomes quickly evident. Both of these employees worked not only on map repair and folder construction, but also on a variety of conservation projects required to prepare collections for the move to the new building.

The project of cataloging and re-organizing the collection was supervised and coordinated by the section head. The decision had been made that bibliographic access to the collection would be provided by a full MARC catalog record for each map. Since there would be no card catalog in the new William F. Winter Archives and History Building, no card index for maps, and no forms for hand-written requests by patrons, MARC access was essential for maps as for all other collections and was part of the overall retrospective conversion of the card catalog as well as many paper-based archival finding aids.

Maps in the Historical Map Collection were being cataloged more or less in chronological order from an inventory based on the date of situation. In keeping with a practice begun in the early 1990s, part-time contract catalogers were hired from 1998 through 2002 to catalog or assist with cataloging. The

section head and division director also became catalogers as time drew short in 2002.

Many catalog records for the better-known maps were found by a project cataloger with access to OCLC WorldCat, so that MARC records were downloaded and then revised to include the MDAH call number, additional name, topical, and geographic headings as required, standard and local notes, and of course, holdings and item records. However, it was a surprise to see that a large number of published maps at the state and local level were unavailable in OCLC. The old map card catalog index could have been enormously helpful, but was found to contain too many inaccuracies to be used for the project. All cataloging was done with the original map in hand so that all the data needed for the catalog record could be taken directly form the map or verified as needed. It was the significant duty of section staff to pull and organize maps for the cataloger, proofread catalog records, put maps in new folders of the correct size, print labels with the new call number, attach labels to folders, and re-organize the maps according to folder size and new call number.

Organizing the map collection by folder size was clearly a good preservation choice. Uniform folders stacked together in map drawers provide a flatter, more even storage for maps than stacked folders of different sizes. Again, a primary gain is the ease of retrieval. Folders and maps are handled less because they can be located with less searching. When it came to the actual move of the Historical Map Collection to the new Winter building, the huge advantage gained by the reorganization of the collection by folder size was dramatically evident. The uniform stacks of the smaller A and B size folders were easily grouped in manageable numbers and tied together in neat bundles, and in general, all of the folder sizes could be lifted and placed in the custom flat wooden cases designed for the move, with minimum stress to the maps.

While the above projects were being done, other preservation measures, such as space and storage, were being planned for the new facility. New five-drawer steel horizontal map files based on archival specifications were to be purchased for storing the collection. Primary concerns were relieving the crowded, over-filled drawers in the Capers Building, providing enough space for twenty years of growth, and solving the problem of storage for the oversized maps. The planning resulted in almost doubled storage space, with an increase from nineteen standard five-drawer map files to thirty-two standard files. The increase in files has allowed enough space that map drawers can be partially filled, as recommended, with many additional drawers left empty for the future growth of the Historic Map Collection.

Planning storage for the oversized maps included specifications for oversized five-drawer files. Finding a manufacturer (Mayline, Inc.) was a challenge solved by staff of the architectural firm for the new building. Four of the oversized five-drawer files were acquired in addition to the standard files from

this company and are now, because of their size and location, a visible jewel (for some) of the Historic Map Collection in the Winter Building.

The three goals of providing new housings, MARC catalog records, and collection reorganization for the historical Map Collection were largely achieved in time for the move to the William F. Winter Archives and History Building in September 2003. The collection has also benefited, along with all collections, from the superior environmental controls provided for the closed stacks. About five percent of the collection remains uncataloged, although MARC records were completed in 2004 for the collection of early twentieth century Mississippi county soil maps.

Future plans for ensuring preservation of and access to the collections include digital imaging. Maps are already digitally imaged in conjunction with public orders from patrons, scholars, and corporate clients, who tend to prefer digital scans over the photographic reproduction of maps from oversized negatives, the previous department standard for filling these requests. The Mississippi county soil map collection that was just cataloged, a very brittle collection from the early twentieth century, is on the list of imaging projects for 2005. Considerations such as map condition, size, use, copyright status, and staffing will affect future map selections for the new medium.

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